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ABSTRACT

Family sources of stress and conflict are important variables in the well-being of children, adolescents, and young adults. In this study, current models of stress are contrasted with earlier versions, definitions are reviewed, and ambiguities in conceptualization are brought out. Current research on affective information processing is thought to hold considerable promise for understanding the links between cognitions and emotions in families experiencing conflict. A comprehensive model is suggested that attempts to explain the importance of constructs such as family functioning and coping for appraisals of parental conflict and subsequent emotional response. The model tested includes several constructs thought to measure family conflict experiences. Specifically, this study explores the potential role of family functioning, coping resources, and attitudes about mood in influencing cognitive appraisals of family conflict and subsequent emotional responses among college students (N=609). A rationale for the inclusion of these constructs is provided, and additional measures are described. Results are reported and discussed. Further modeling strategies are described, and the resulting model is discussed. (Contains 2 figures, 3 tables, and 105 references.) (EMK)

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RUNNING HEAD: Parental Conflict

Structural Model of Coping, Attachment, and Emotions with Parental Conflict

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Family sources of stress and conflict are an important variable in the well-being of children, adolescents, and early adults (Neighbors, Forehand, & McVicar, 1993). There is considerable agreement that important developmental tasks of adolescence and early adulthood find their resolution within the context of family relationships (Lapsley, Rice, & FitzGerald, 1990) and there is evidence that intense emotions can be associated with the initiation, maintenance, and disruption of family bonds (Ainsworth, 1989). However, despite an increasing interest in relationships and emotions over the past 2 decades, little has been done to examine the nature and function of emotions in close relationships (Fitness & Strongman, 1991). This is particularly surprising given the amount of stress that ruptured interpersonal relationships can cause (Cummings, Davies, & Simpson, 1994).

Berscheid and Peplau (1983) pointed out that relationships with others are central to human existence and cited Klinger's (1977) finding that almost all respondents to the question, "What is it that makes your life meaningful?", mentioned a relationship with a family, friend, or loved one, while less than half cited occupational success or religious faith. Interpersonal difficulties can therefore be a significant source of stress and contribute to a variety of stress symptoms. However, it is also important to recognize the perceptual nature of stress: what is particularly problematic about relationship difficulties are not the objective features of the situation but rather the individual's *perception* of what is at stake and what they can do about it.

Current models of stress and coping emphasize the importance of subjective evaluations of events in determining whether or not demands will be experienced as stressors (Cox, 1978; Hobfoll, 1988; Mason, 1975; Matheny, Aycock, Pugh, Curlette, & Canella, 1986). In contrast to earlier research in which stress was conceptualized as a psychosocial demand (Shinn, Rosario, Morch, & Chestnut, 1984) or a physiological response to a demand (Selye, 1956; Wolff, 1968), subsequent models have emphasized that stress resides neither in the situation nor in the person but in a transaction between the person and the environment. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) are the major proponents of transactional models of stress; they hypothesized a link between individual appraisals of potentially stressful events and resultant emotional states. They defined stress as a "particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by a person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being" (p. 19). However, as in other areas of stress research, there is some ambiguity about what coping is and what role it plays in human functioning (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). This confusion is particularly evident in the clinical practice of stress counseling, where it is often unclear which coping strategies are most appropriate for a given complaint (Wagenaar & LaForge, 1994).

Cognitive appraisals of events, which are central to transactional models of stress, are also an important theoretical construct in recent research in social psychology on affective information

processing (Clore, Schwarz, & Conway, 1994). Arnold (1960), a pioneer in this area, has been particularly influential in laying the groundwork for cognitive approaches to emotion. She postulated that people evaluate everything they encounter in the environment, and that these evaluations occur immediately and automatically. Clore et al. (1994) have suggested that while the cognitive approach to emotion was also reflected in Lazarus's (1966) early work on stress and emotion, overall schemes for categorizing emotions were not hypothesized. However, recent work by appraisal theorists such as Roseman, Spindel, and Jose (1990) has been focused on developing empirically supported models which specify the relationship between cognitive appraisals of events and subsequent emotional response.

Cognitive appraisal theorists recently have begun exploring the usefulness of these models in the area of relationship functioning (Fitness and Fletcher, 1990, 1993; Fletcher & Fitness, 1990). Such research would seem to have implications for psychologists and counselors, given increasing interest in cognitive approaches to relationship interventions (Andersen, 1993; Baucam, Epstein, Burnett, & Rankin, 1993). Recently, theoretical and empirical work has emerged suggesting the utility of appraisal theory for counseling interventions. For example, McCarthy, Brack, Brack, and Beaton (1997) suggested how this model could be used in individual counseling and Brack, Brack, and McCarthy (1997) suggested how it might be useful with the supervision of counseling trainees. Empirical studies have also suggested the potential usefulness of this model with events relevant to counseling. For example, McCarthy, Brack, and Brack (1996) found that appraisals were significant predictors of emotions experienced as a result of family conflict and McCarthy, Brack, Brack, Liu, and Hill Carlson (in press) found that the same types of appraisals were influenced by levels of parental attachment. Aspects of appraisal theory have also been found to be useful predictors of emotions reported after relationship breakup (McCarthy, Lambert, and Brack, 1997) and job transition (McCarthy & Lambert, in press).

However, to date, no comprehensive models have been suggested which attempt to explain the importance of constructs such as family functioning and coping for appraisals of parental conflict and subsequent emotional response. The purpose of this investigation therefore was to test a model which includes a number of constructs thought to bear on family conflict experiences. Specifically, this study was designed to explore the potential role of family functioning, coping resources, and attitudes about mood in influencing cognitive appraisals of family conflict and subsequent emotional responses. Before presenting the methods and results of this study, we will first provide a rationale for the inclusion of the constructs used.

Family Variables Related to Emotion Functioning

Family Adaptability and Cohesion

Olson, Sprenkle, & Russell's (1979) Circumplex Model of Family Systems represents one

of the most widely used and highly debated theories in it's field (Cluff, Hicks, & Madsen, 1994). Olson et al. (1979) proposed a two dimensional taxonomy, family cohesion and adaptability, which were seen to be intersecting continua on which either extreme represented dysfunctional families (Daley, Sowers-Hoaf, & Thyer, 1991). Over 300 studies have been conducted using the Family Adaptability and Cohesive Evaluation Scale (FACES) (Olsen, 1986), generating considerable support for it's validity as a measure of family functioning.

Family Social Support

Considerable evidence has been amassed that social support mediates the effects of life stress on health and well-being (for a review, see Berkman, 1985) and that family social support can be a critical factor in recovery from illness (for a review, see Ell, 1996). In fact, Pierce, Sarason, and Sarason (1996) consider the blurring of the fields of social support and the family as fortunate. Among college students, parental support has been shown to be associated with psychological adjustment (Valentiner, Holahan, & Moos, 1994), which has also been demonstrated in youths (McIntyre & Dusek, 1995). While the importance of family members as a source of social support is virtually unchallenged, Burg and Seeman (1994) have drawn attention to the some of the negative aspects of family ties, such as transmitting lifestyle risk factors for disease such as smoking, poor eating patterns, and Type A behavior.

However, far fewer investigations have been conducted which examine the role of family support in developing resources for emotion functioning. Terry, Rawle, & Callan (1995) found support for the mediating role of coping between social support and adjustment to stress, but few mechanism have been suggested by which this is hypothesized to occur. However, recent research in family attachment has attempted to do precisely this.

Parental Attachment

Ainsworth (1989) and Bowlby (1988) have suggested that a critical aspect of attachment theory is the idea that infants construct an internal set of expectations about the caregiver's accessibility and responsiveness, as well as the ability of the infant to elicit this response from the primary caregiver. Bowlby (1988) called these internally organized expectations "working models", and believed that, while not immutable, working models tend to persist into adolescence and adulthood and affect how an individual views the self and others in interpersonal relationships. Working models are in effect internal mental templates that help us predict and manage interactions with the outside world and are hypothesized to be the mechanism by which attachment experiences affect a person throughout life (Feeney & Noller, 1996). Empirical research has provided evidence for the developmental persistence of working models between patterns of infant attachment and later childhood behaviors (Bretherton, 1985; Collins & Read, 1994; Main & Cassidy, 1988; Sroufe & Waters 1977).

The notion that attachment bonds and internal working models persist into adolescence and adulthood has led to recent interest in examining the effects of these processes on the functioning of college students. Several studies have found that higher levels of parental attachment and greater family support are related to the successful adjustment of college students (Holmbeck & Wandrei, 1993; Kenny & Donaldson, 1991; Lapsley, Rice, & Fitzgerald, 1990; Rice, FitzGerald, Whaley, & Gibbs, 1995). Evidence has also been found for a relationship between attachment and career development (Blustein, Walbridge, Friedlander, & Palladino, 1991; Kenny, 1990), academic achievement (Cutrona, Cole, Colangelo, Assouline, & Russell, 1994; Kenny & Donaldson, 1992), and students' perceived levels of personal coping resources (Brack, Gay, & Matheny, 1993). Levels of parental attachment also have been found to affect college students' relationships with the opposite sex (Feeney, Noller, & Patty, 1993; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994) as well as adjustment after ended love relationships (Pistole, 1995).

Ainsworth (1989) has suggested that active attachment bonds to parents continue into adolescence and adulthood. Kenny and Rice (1995) have indicated that while college counselors have traditionally been concerned with difficulties in separation-individuation, research in attachment suggests that students also need help negotiating more adaptive parental relationships, thereby balancing attempts to assert their autonomy with their need for connection to family emotional and psychological support. While there appears to be considerable evidence for the relationship of attachment to a wide range of variables affecting college student adjustment, what is less clear is how college counselors can use this information as part of counseling interventions.

One area of attachment theory which may have direct implications for college counselors, particularly those who subscribe to cognitive approaches, is the presumed connection between internal working models which are a function of attachment histories and the presumed connection of these models to cognitive evaluations of events. Research has indicated that parental attachment is a critical determinant of how an individual cognitively processes experiences (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Kenny & Donaldson, 1991; Lapsley, Rice, & FitzGerald, 1990). For example, Armsden, McCauley, Greenberg, Burke, and Mitchell (1990) suggested that poor attachment may be related to systematic biases in the way events are psychologically interpreted. This would then seem to have important implications for cognitive interventions, as attachment history might predispose one to appraisal biases. With regard to relationship functioning, Lopez (1995) stated that securely attached individuals "should be most capable of shifting their attentional and appraisal processes as needed to permit thoughtful self-reflection as well as to solicit, receive, and entertain a wide range of social feedback" (p.409). Research also has indicated that family attachment may have a wide ranging impact on affect regulation (Lopez, 1995) and retrospective accounts of relationships with parents (Collins & Read, 1990).

Levels of distress among college students can be quite high, particularly among first year students (Scher, Wood, & Gotham, 1996), and research has suggested that attachment and family support is inversely related to adolescents' level of depression (Sheeber, Hyman, Alpert, Davis, & Andrews, 1997). What appears necessary is a method for operationalizing and understanding these internal working models of interactions with others and the way that such cognitive evaluations can effect emotional functioning. It also would seem important that such a model have direct applications for clinical work with students and their families. The following section describes Roseman et al.'s (1990) model of cognition-emotion relationships which has received considerable empirical support with college students and may be very useful in this regard.

Cognitive Appraisal Theory

In this study we sought to take advantage of recent advances of appraisal theorists in clarifying the relationship between appraisals of events and subsequent emotional responses, which may in part operationalize the internal working models hypothesized by attachment theorists. In a series of studies with college students, Roseman and his colleagues (Roseman, 1984; Roseman et al., 1990; Roseman, 1991; Roseman et al., 1995) found that specific emotions could be reliably differentiated according to specific dimensions of cognitive appraisals of events. McCarthy, Brack, et al. (1997) have suggested that Roseman et al.'s (1990) model might be particularly useful with cognitive approaches to therapy because it specifies the relationships of specific appraisals to discrete emotions, thereby clarifying specific patterns of thinking which need to be altered to affect a change in emotions. Roseman et al. (1990) postulated that cognitive appraisals of events are based on six specific dimensions: *situational state*, an appraisal of whether an event is consistent or inconsistent with one's desires; *motivational state*, which refers to whether the individual is seeking something positive or striving to avoid something painful; *probability*, which refers to the perceived likelihood of an event's occurrence; *power*, the degree to which individuals believe they are capable of coping with a given situation; *legitimacy*, which refers to whether or not individuals believe they deserved for an event to happen; and *agency*, which consists of three separate sub-dimensions: (1) agency-self, the degree to which an event is perceived as caused by oneself; (2) agency-other, the degree to which the event is perceived as caused by another person; and (3) agency-circumstance, the degree to which the event is perceived as caused by external circumstances.

Roseman et al. (1990) found that by measuring appraisals along each of these dimensions an individual's emotional reaction could be predicted. The theory includes 10 specific negative emotions - disgust, distress, sadness, fear, unfriendliness, anger, frustration, shame, regret, and guilt. Roseman, Antoniou, & Jose (1996) added an eleventh negative emotion, contempt, which is also included in the current study. The six positive emotions were joy, relief, affection, pride,

hope, and surprise. Interested readers are directed to Roseman et al. (1990) and a review by Clore et al. (1994) for a more complete discussion of the model.

Research investigating the hypothesized link between attachment history and cognitive appraisals of events involving one's parents have provided mixed results: McCarthy, Brack, & Brack (1996) found that appraisals seemed to operate independent of attachment history whereas McCarthy (1998) found that attachment history was related to current appraisals of family conflict as long as attachment to one's parent and appraisals involving *that* parent were considered. However, it seems reasonable to also consider the possible mediating role of individual coping resources and confidence in one's ability to identify and alter problematic emotional states. The literature in this area is reviewed next.

Stress Coping and Emotional Adjustment

The impact that stress can have on one's emotional well-being is often overlooked. Seligman (1975) has even gone so far as to call depression the "common cold of psychopathology"(p. 76). Disorders such as depression and anxiety are common complications of stress (Simons, Gordon, Monroe, & Thase, 1995), and high rates of emotional distress seem all too common in college-aged students (Scher, Wood, & Gotham, 1996). In fact, Dunkel-Schetter and Lobel (1990) have estimated that as many as 90% of college students may experience such distress. Such an issue is vitally important on today's college campuses, for as Strange (1994) has pointed out, an integral part of development is the balancing of challenging events with environmental support. Students need to feel that college experiences are sufficiently challenging to warrant their best efforts, but not be so overwhelmed by life demands that they succumb to disorders such as anxiety and depression.

Folkman and Lazarus (1988) have been at the forefront of efforts to understand the relationship between stress and emotional well-being. They have maintained that coping has two widely recognized functions: the regulation of stressful emotions (emotion-focused coping) and the alteration of the person-environment relation causing the distress (problem-focused coping). Folkman and Lazarus have emphasized that optimal functioning is probably associated with the capacity to use both strategies, but there is a paucity of literature connecting the use of such coping *strategies* to the coping *resources* which presumably allow for their use.

Two related areas of research by Catanzaro and Mearns (1990) and Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, and Palfai (1995) seem very promising in this regard. Cantanzaro and Mearns (1990) have suggested that the expectancy to be able to alter one's negative moods may be an important component of coping. They developed the Negative Mood Regulation Scale (NMRS) to measure beliefs about one's ability to alleviate negative moods. Kirsch, Mearns, & Catanzaro (1990) have suggested that such mood regulation expectancies are related to Lazarus and

Folkman's (1984) concept of secondary appraisal and therefore represent beliefs that one's cognitive and behavioral coping responses will reduce negative emotions.

Similarly, Salovey et al. (1995) examined a construct they labeled "meta mood," which is also addressed in their work on emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, in press; Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990). Salovey et al. (1995) suggested that although contemporary psychologists tend to view emotional disclosure as a good thing, Western culture or even modern psychology have not always shared this view. One need only look at the early work of authors such as Ellis (1995) and Beck (1976) to find that emotions are sometimes viewed as nothing better than distractions in the human pursuit of rational goals. Such approaches clearly have been very effective in the treatment of mood disorders (for a review, see Lipsey & Wilson, 1993). However, cognitive approaches to psychotherapy such as those recommended by Safran and Greenberg (1986) have tended to take a more balanced approach in the valuing of thoughts and emotions as important components of human well-being. Salovey et al. developed the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS) to measure the more enduring aspects of the reflective experience of mood. The TMMS includes three subscales measuring aspects of the trait meta mood construct: attention to feelings, which includes tendencies to attend to moods; clarity of feelings, measuring the ability to discriminate among emotions; and mood repair, a measure of the ability to repair negative moods or maintain positive ones. Although these two bodies of research overlap, Catanzaro and Mearns' (1990) work is embedded in the tradition of social learning theory, in which theorists view generalized expectancies for problem solving as important determinants of an individual's behavior in a given situation. Salovey et al. conceptualized emotional intelligence as a component of a more generalized set of human intelligences, which includes other intelligences such as linguistic, musical, and bodily-kinesthetic (Mayer & Salovey, in press).

Overview of the Study

By applying a model of family functioning and resources for emotional functioing to parental conflicts experienced by college students, we hope to understand factors which are related to their appraisals of the events and the valence and intensity of the emotions they experienced. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test a model with the antecedent construct of family functioning, the mediating variables of emotion coping resources, beliefs about mood, and cognitive appraisals of parental conflict, and the outcome variable of emotional experience.

One of the advantages of using structural equation modeling with LISREL is that models can be tested with modification indices that indicate the possible omission of direct paths according to fit with the data (Bollen, 1989). As this was one of the first attempts to develop a more comprehensive of the constructs hypothesized to impact cognitive appraisals of parental conflict, the initial model tested included a number of paths, particularly involving the constructs of emotion

coping resources and beliefs about mood, which were not necessarily supported by previous research. We chose this strategy given cautions by Ling (1983) that causal models cannot be disconfirmed so long as the variables alleged to be causally related are correlated. In the initial model (see Figure 1), we did use previous theory to identify the antecedent (exogenous) variable of family functioning, the mediating variables of emotion coping resources, beliefs about mood, and cognitive appraisals of situational state (desirability), as well as the outcome (endogenous) variable of emotions experienced. In Figure 1, the circles represent latent variables, the double-headed arrows represent correlations among the factors, and the single-headed arrows indicate the direction of the predicted relations among the latent variables.

Insert Figure 1 About Here

Rather than attempt to test the relationship between all of the appraisals and emotions in Roseman et al.'s (1990; 1996) model, we chose to focus our investigation on the basic dichotomy between negative and positive emotions. Smith and Ellsworth (1988a, 1988b) used a similar strategy in analyzing their appraisal model of emotions. Zajonc, Murphy, and Inglehart (1989) asserted that although there is considerable disagreement about labeling distinctions between specific emotional states, such as anger and frustration, there is virtually full agreement that positive and negative emotions can discriminated reliably. According to Roseman et al.'s (1990) theory, appraisals of the desirability of the event were tested using the situational state appraisal dimension as a potential mediating variable between family functioning, coping resources, and beliefs about mood to emotional outcome. Roseman, Dhawan, Rettek, Naidu, and Thapa (1995), used a similar strategy with path modeling to test for cultural differences in the relationship between specific appraisal dimensions and discrete emotions. In that study, Roseman et al. (1995) tested paths from specific cognitive appraisals to hypothesized resultant emotions.

Method

Participants

Participants were 609 undergraduate students enrolled in a large, southwestern university. Mean age was 20.69 (SD = 3.97); participants were 57% female and 43% male; 56% of the participants were European American, 17% were Asian American, 12% were African-American, and 15 % represented other racial/ethnic backgrounds.

Variables

Emotion Coping Resources (ECR): Selected scales from the Coping Resources Inventory for Stress (CRIS), a 280 item battery for measuring appraisals of 15 coping resources which contribute to the successful management of stress (Matheny, Curlette, Aycock, Pugh, & Taylor,

1987), were used to measure this construct. Specifically, the CRIS subscales of self-disclosure, self-directedness, confidence, acceptance, tension control, and stress monitoring were used. Matheny, Aycock, Curlette, and Junker (1993) found good reliability and strong support for the convergent and divergent validity of the CRIS scales. The Coping Resources Inventory for Stress (CRIS) (Matheny et al., 1987) was developed as a 280 item battery for measuring coping resources which contribute to the successful management of stress. The CRIS yields an overall coping resource effectiveness score (CRE) as well as 12 primary scales measuring specific types of coping resources. Curlette et al. (1990) reported a coefficient alpha of .97 for the CRE and a test-retest reliability coefficient of .95 over a four-week period for college students. The coefficient alphas for the scales used in this study were .92 for self-disclosure, .87 for self-directedness, .90 for confidence, .83 for acceptance, .88 for social support, .90 for stress monitoring, and .88 for tension control. The test-retest reliability's for the scales used in this study were .82 for self-disclosure, .88 for self-directedness, .91 for confidence, .95 for acceptance, .91 for social support, .84 for stress monitoring, and .76 for tension control. Matheny et al. (1993) found strong support for the convergent and divergent validity of the CRIS scales. The CRIS scales provided significant convergent correlations with 29 of 32 measures of relevant personality scales, but no significant divergent correlations.

Family Functioning: A total of four scales were used to measure the construct of family functioning. One scale, from the Inventory of Parental and Peer Attachment (IPPA), measured attachment to participants' mother and father (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). Two subscales were also used from the Family Adaptability and Cohesion Scale II (FACES II), which is a 30 item questionnaire designed to measure family cohesion and adaptability (Olson, Portner, & Bell, 1983). In addition, one scale from the CRIS, social support, was also used to measure the construct of family functioning. This scale was included with the family functioning construct because high scorerers on this scale "have families who communicate well with one another, who are loving affectionate, and who are compatible and able to handle conflict well" (Curlette et al., 1990; p. 5).

The IPPA was used to measure attachment to participants' mother and father (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). The IPPA was considered particularly appropriate for this study because it measures "affectively toned cognitive expectancies" (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987, p. 431) associated with attachment to parents. The IPPA is a 75 item questionnaire in which respondents indicate how often a statement is true for them on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "almost never or never", "seldom", "sometimes", "often", and "almost always or always", with a reversal of some items to prevent response bias. There are 25 items on each of three scales measuring attachment to the mother, father, and peers (peer scores were not used in this study). Scores can

range from 25 to 125 on each scale with higher scores reflecting closer attachment. Armsden and Greenberg (1987) reported good construct validity and internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) to be 0.93 for maternal and paternal attachment. In the analysis for paternal conflict, the scale measuring attachment to one's father was used and in the analysis for maternal conflict, the scale measuring attachment to one's mother was used.

Lopez and Gover (1993) reviewed the validity information on the IPPA and reported Armsden and Greenberg's (1987) finding that parent attachment scores correlated significantly with reported levels of family support, conflict, cohesiveness, and the tendency to seek out parents in times of need. They further point out that IPPA scores were also significant predictors of self-esteem, life-satisfaction, depression and anxiety, and resentment and alienation. Subsequent studies reviewed by Lopez and Gover (1993) have found IPPA scores to be predictive of personal and social identity as well as of aspects of college adjustment. With regard to college students, IPPA scores have been found to be significantly associated with psychological distress (Bradford & Lyddon, 1993), perceived levels of social support (Blain, Thompson, & Whiffen, 1993), and self-reported levels of personal coping resources (Brack, Gay, & Matheny, 1993).

The other two variables used to measure the construct of family functioning were the adaptability and cohesion subscales from the FACES II. This instrument asks respondents to rate the occurrence of behaviors and situations within their families (e.g., "Our family does things together") using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (almost never) to 5 (almost always). As noted previously, the FACES II has two subscales: (a) adaptability, defined as the ability of a marital or family system to change its power structure, role relationships, and relationship rules in response to situational and developmental stress, and (b) cohesion, defined as the emotional bonding that family members have towards one another (Olson et al., 1983). Olson et al. (1983) report good internal consistency (.90) and test-retest reliability over a 4 - 5 week period (.84). Hampson, Hulgus, & Beavers (1991) found evidence for the concurrent validity of the FACES II; it was found to be correlated with a measure of family health. While a linear scoring and interpretation formula is available for the FACES II, continuos scores were calculated for this study as suggested by Olsen et al. (1983).

Beliefs About Mood: Two separate measures were also used to measure this construct. The Negative Mood Regulation Scale (NMRS) is a 30-item inventory designed to measure an individual's belief in his or her ability to alleviate negative moods and includes three subscales (Catanzaro & Mearns, 1990). Reflective experience of mood was measured by the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), developed by Salovey et al. (1995). It includes three subscales measuring enduring aspects of the reflective experience of mood.

The authors measured generalized expectancies for alleviating negative moods with the

NMRS. The NMRS is a 30-item inventory designed to measure an individual's belief in his or her ability to alleviate negative moods (Kirsch et al., 1990). The NMRS has three subscales: (a) one measuring expectancies about cognitive strategies for reducing negative mood ("I can forget what's upsetting me pretty easily;" hereafter referred to as *Cognitive NMRS*); (b) a scale measuring expectancies about the ability to use overt behaviors to reduce negative moods ("I can feel better by treating myself to something I like;" hereafter referred to as *Behavioral NMRS*); and (c) a scale referring to generalized beliefs that one can affect a change in one's mood ("I can do something to feel better;" hereafter referred to as *General NMR*). For each item of the NMRS, participants responded on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* , 5 = *strongly agree*) to a statement which completed the stem, "When I'm upset, I believe that . . . ." Some items were reverse coded, and higher scores indicated stronger belief that one could alleviate negative moods. Psychometric data from five separate samples revealed alpha internal consistency coefficients ranging from .86 to .92 (Catanzaro & Mearns, 1990).

Reflective experience of mood was measured by the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS), developed by Salovey et al. (1995). The TMMS is a 30-item instrument to which participants responded on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* , 5 = *strongly agree*). It includes three subscales measuring enduring aspects of the reflective experience of mood. The authors labeled the scale measuring tendencies to attend to moods *Attention TMMS* ; it included items such as "The best way for me to handle my feelings is to experience them to the fullest". The scale for measuring the ability to discriminate among feelings was labeled *Clarity TMMS*; one item was "I am rarely confused about how I feel." The authors assigned the label *Repair TMMS* to the scale measuring the ability to regulate feelings, which included items such as "I try to think good thoughts no matter how badly I feel." Salovey et al. (1995) found the Cronbach's alpha for these scales to vary from .82 to .87.

Cognitive appraisals and emotions: Cognitive appraisals about conflict with one's parents were measured using questionnaires adapted from Roseman et al. (1990). Participants received two versions of the questionnaire, one which asked about the last time they experienced a conflict with their mother (or the person who acted as their mother) and the other which asked about conflict with their father (or the person who acted as their father). Participants were asked to identify the predominant emotion they experienced as a result of this event from a list of sixteen emotions in Roseman et al.'s (1990) model and to complete a 17-item inventory designed to measure cognitive appraisals of the event.

Participants were asked to identify the emotions associated with this event after being provided with all of the emotions which are a part of Roseman et al.'s (1990) model, and were then asked to rate the intensity with which they experienced each emotion on a 10 point Likert scale

from 0 ("not at all") to 9 ("very intense"). Participants were next asked to "tell the story of what happened" when the conflict happened. This parallels Roseman et al.'s (1990) procedure, except that the particular event of conflict involving a parent was specified. Participants were then asked, "What was it in the situation you just described that directly caused you to feel the emotion(s) you indicated?" We used this procedure because in pilot-testing Roseman et al. (1990) found that some experiences involve multiple events, appraisals, and emotions. This statement therefore is included to focus the participant on appraisals of the part of the event that led to the emotion(s) being asked about in the questionnaire.

The second part of the questionnaire used a 17-item inventory designed by Roseman et al. (1990) to measure the six appraisal dimensions in their model. As noted above, only the situational state appraisal dimension and the latent constructs of positive and negative emotions from their model were used. One example of an item which measured the situational state (desirability) appraisal dimension is, "At the time, did you think of this event as consistent with what you wanted, or inconsistent with what you wanted?." The situational state appraisal dimension was hypothesized by Roseman et al. (1990) to differentiate emotions into the categories of positive and negative emotions. As noted previously, one additional emotion, contempt, was added to the model by Roseman, Antoniou, and Jose (1996) and was also used in this study. Questions were ordered randomly on the questionnaire. Roseman et al. (1990) found the internal consistency reliability of this scale to be 0.86 and previous research by McCarthy et al. (1997) found it be .92.

Procedure

Participants were recruited from undergraduate psychology and educational psychology classes over the course of two semesters and completed the questionnaires described below during scheduled administration times. Participants who agreed to be in the study were asked to read and sign an informed consent form. Participants were then given numbered packets (to preserve confidentiality) which contained a demographics survey, a questionnaire measuring appraisals and emotions adapted from Roseman et al. (1990), and the remaining instruments described above. Participants completed the questionnaires during scheduled examination times and an experimenter was available to answer questions.

Statistical Analyses

Hypothesized structural models are supported if the overall fit of the model to the observed data is adequate and if the relevant structural coefficients between latent variables are statistically significant and in the predicted direction (Bollen, 1989). However, several alternative models can be generated, with each providing adequate fit to the data. Thus, a plausible model depends more on plausible theory than significant statistics.

Data analyses were conducted with the computer programs PRELIS and LISREL 8 (Joreskog, & Sorbom, 1993). The measurement model in this study was specified according to previous research and theory. Beliefs about mood have previously been shown to be related to coping resources (McCarthy, Liu, et al., 1997) and the CRIS subscales used to measure the construct emotion coping resources were chosen according to previous research (McCarthy et al., 1997) and inspection of items contained in the scales and hypothesized to be related to emotion functioning (Curlette et al., 1990). The scales used to measure the construct of family functioning were also chosen according to previous research using the IPPA (McCarthy, 1998) and inspection of scale items for the CRIS subscale of social support (Curlette et al., 1990).

McCarthy (1995) found that the 17 emotions hypothesized by Roseman et al. (1990) could be factor analyzed into two underlying subgroups: positive emotions and negative emotions, which was replicated using the additional emotion of contempt by McCarthy, Lambert, et al. (1997). All three situational state questionnaire items from Roseman et al. (1990) were used to measure the construct of situational state.

Results

Retrospective accounts were used in this study and an important consideration was the amount of time elapsed since the respondents experienced conflict with their mother or father. For example, in a study investigating emotions experienced after relationship breakup, Mearns (1991) included only participants who had that experience in the previous year. Such a restriction was not used in this study so as not to exclude participants. However, for a majority of participants, parental conflict had occurred in the past year (M= 38.48 weeks for parental conflict, 84.5% experienced the conflict in the last year; M = 22.93 weeks for maternal conflict, 90% experienced the conflict in the last year). To test whether elapsed time since the event occurred affected cognitive appraisals of the event, the Pearson's r correlation between time since conflict occurred with the parent and appraisals of situational state (desirability) were computed. Neither correlation was significant, suggesting that appraisals were not influenced by the amount of time elapsed. Data analysis was conducted with the computer programs PRELIS and LISREL 8 (Joreskog, & Sorbom, 1993). The measurement model was first tested with the data for both parental and maternal conflict to evaluate whether the observed variables described above loaded on the hypothesized latent constructs. In all cases, fit indices were above .90 and all t values assessing significance of the paths between latent and observed variables were significant: the hypothesized observed variables measuring the constructs of ECR, beliefs about mood, family functioning, and appraisals and emotions (using Roseman et al.'s (1990) methodology), were confirmed.

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and ranges of the variables which appeared in the final structural models, as well as the standardized coefficients for each observed

variable on the latent constructs. Participants generally reported coping resources within the norms on all CRIS scales (Curlette et al., 1990). Scores on the situational state variable ($\underline{M}$ = 3.49; $\underline{SD}$ = 1.25 for parent conflict; $\underline{M}$ = 3.38; $\underline{SD}$ = 1.01 for maternal conflict) indicate some variability in the appraised desirability of the event. As might be expected, the intensities of all negative emotions were higher than those for positive emotions, with the exception of reported intensities for hope. All coefficients in the measurement model were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).

Insert Table 1 About Here

Some research results suggest that there are gender differences in emotions (McGrath, Keita, Strickland, & Russo, 1990). A series of exploratory analyses were therefore conducted to examine whether it would be reasonable to combine males and female participants' responses on the variables of situational state, positive emotions, and negative emotions in this study as these were the only variables which varied according to the type of conflict experienced. Tests for significant interactions (Parent * Gender) were conducted for each of these variables and no significant differences were found. However, significant differences were found for the gender of the participant for positive and negative emotions (but not for situational state): on average, females reported lower levels of positive emotions (across both types of parental conflict) and higher intensities of negative emotions (again across both types of parental conflict).

The correlation matrix of all variables which appeared in the final structural model is presented in Table 2 for maternal conflict and in Table 3 for paternal conflict. Positive intercorrelations were found for the CRIS subscales used in the study, which was also reported by Curlette et al. (1990). The correlations between positive emotions and coping resources were generally positive and the correlations between negative emotions and coping resources were generally negative, indicating that higher levels of coping resources were associated with greater levels of positive affect and lower levels of coping resources were associated with negative affect. As predicted by Roseman et al. (1990), the higher ratings of desirability (situational state) were positively associated with positive feelings and negatively associated with negative feelings.

Insert Tables 2 & 3 About Here

Given the previous finding of significant differences in reported emotions for gender of the participants, corresponding pairs of correlation coefficients from the male and female matrices were compared for these variables using Fisher's z test for the difference between population correlation coefficients. These exploratory univariate analyses were performed only to provide general

guidelines for model testing. Only one of these correlations was found to be significant (correlation between positive emotions and negative emotions for male participants: $r = -0.13$, $p = 0.56$; correlation for female participants: $r = -0.38$, $p < .001$). While these findings should be noted when considering the limitations of the study, they do not appear significant enough to preclude using both genders in the same path model.

As noted previously, we first tested the full structural model (see Figure 1) with paternal conflict and, as expected, found that this model did not adequately fit the sample data. Bollen (1989) pointed out that one advantage of using SEM is that specified models can be modified according to theory and fit information provided by LISREL to develop models which better fit the data. We therefore undertook a series of modifications which were restricted to those that were consistent with theory and which improved the overall fit of the model. None of the loadings in the measurement model were changed. The modifications in the structural model for paternal conflict consisted of removing direct beta paths which were not statistically significant, which included (a) removal of the paths from ECR to all latent variables except MOOD, (b) removal of the direct path from MOOD to positive emotions, and (c) removal of the direct path family functioning to positive emotions.

Raykov, Tomer, and Nesselroade (1991) pointed out that model evaluation is not necessarily a simple procedure and indicated that no single statistic is apt to provide a firm basis for deciding whether a model is accurate. Bollen (1989) points out that several indices can be used in evaluating structural models which evaluate models ranging from 0 (no fit with the data) to 1 (perfect fit with the data). The following goodness-of-fit and structural relations indices for the final structural model were found for paternal conflict: goodness of fit index (GFI) = 0.90 (Joreskog, & Sorbom, 1993) (values of .85 and above are considered acceptable for the GFI); adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) = 0.87; normed fit index (NFI) = 0.85; non-normed fit index (NNFI) = 0.85 (Tucker & Lewis, 1973) ; root mean square residual (RMR) = 0.057. The chi-square value for the model was X^2 (372) = 1081.48; $p < .01$, $X^2/df = 2.91$. Although a significant chi-square value can suggest a model which does not fit the data, Bollen (1989) noted that this test can be sensitive to such factors as sample size and departures from underlying statistical assumptions. It is therefore recommended by Bollen (1989) and Hayduk (1987) that a number of methods be used to evaluate models. Hayduk (1987) recommended the X^2/df ratio as a method of evaluating model fit, and suggested values of less than five to be a good fit. Overall, therefore, the fit information appeared to suggest an acceptable model.

We next attempted to replicate the final model for paternal conflict with maternal conflict. The following goodness-of-fit and structural relations indices for the final structural model were found for maternal conflict: (GFI) = 0.88 (Joreskog, & Sorbom, 1993) (values of .85 and above

are considered acceptable for the GFI); adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) = 0.85; normed fit index (NFI) = 0.81; non-normed fit index (NNFI) = 0.84 (Tucker & Lewis, 1973) ; root mean square residual (RMR) = 0.062. The chi-square value for the model was X^2 (372) = 1081.48; $p < .01$, $X^2/df = 2.91$. Overall, therefore, while the fit indices were slightly lower with this model, the fit information appeared to suggest an acceptable for maternal conflict as well.

Figure 2 depicts the final model which was supported for both types of parental conflict. The general flow of the model contained four main functional relationships (a) the direct relationship between family functioning (FAM) and all other variables except positive emotions (POS), (b) the relationship between emotion coping resources (ECR) and beliefs about mood (MOOD), (c) the relationship between MOOD and appraisals about the desirability of the conflict (SIT), and (d) the relationship between SIT and positive emotions (POS) and negative emotions (NEG). Standardized values for each of the paths are contained in Figure 2 as well, with italicized numerals used for maternal conflict. The standardized path from FAM to ECR was 0.53 for paternal conflict ($t = 10.85$, $p < .05$) and 0.59 for maternal conflict ($t = 10.74$, $p < .05$); the path from FAM to MOOD was .19 for both types of conflict ($t = 4.17$, $p < .05$ for paternal conflict; ($t = 3.42$, $p < .05$ for maternal conflict); the path from FAM to SIT was 0.17 for paternal conflict ($t = 3.14$, $p < .05$) and .22 for maternal conflict ($t = 3.49$, $p < .05$); and the path from FAM to NEG was -0.25 for paternal conflict ($t = -5.91$, $p < .05$) and -0.12 ($t = -2.51$, $p < .05$). The path from ECR to MOOD was .45 for paternal conflict ($t = 8.87$, $p < .05$) and .43 for maternal conflict ($t = 7.27$, $p < .05$). The path from MOOD to SIT was -0.29 for paternal conflict ($t = -5.21$, $p < .05$) and -.11 for maternal conflict ($t = -1.97$, $p < .05$). Finally, the path from SIT to NEG was -0.16 for paternal conflict ($t = -3.26$, $p < .05$) and -0.32 for maternal conflict ($t = -5.46$, $p < .05$) and the path from SIT to POS was 0.36 for paternal conflict ($t = 5.99$, $p < .05$) and .47 for maternal conflict ($t = 6.36$, $p < .05$).

Discussion

Family sources of stress and conflict can be an important variable in the well-being of children, adolescents, and early adults (Neighbors, et al., 1993), and to date little has been done to examine the nature and function of emotions in close relationships (Fitness & Strongman, 1991). As we have suggested, the research currently being done in social psychology on affective information processing may hold considerable promise for understanding the links between cognitions and emotions with families experiencing conflict, and the present study was conducted to examine some of the constructs hypothesized to impact appraisals of parental conflict and subsequent emotional response. The final SEM model found in this study for parental conflict, identified four main relationships. First, family functioning (FAM) had a positive relationship with emotion coping resources (ECR), beliefs about mood (MOOD), higher appraisals of the

desirability of the conflict (SIT), and lower levels of negative emotions associated with the conflict. Next, ECR had a positive impact on confidence in one's ability to recognize one's emotions and repair negative ones (MOOD). MOOD had a positive relationship with higher levels of positive emotions experienced as a result of the conflict, but surprisingly, a negative relationship with appraisals about the desirability of the conflict. Finally, as hypothesized by Roseman et al. (1990), appraisals about the desirability of the conflict had a positive impact on positive emotions (POS) and a negative impact on negative emotions (NEG). We next discuss each of these main findings as well as the studies' limitations.

First, support was found for the prediction that Roseman et al.'s (1990) situational state (desirability) appraisal dimension would predict whether positive or negative affect was reported by participants after experiencing the conflict with their parent. Of course, this single finding is not all that surprising, as it is common sense that we will feel positive when achieving a desirable state of affairs. Yet, this crucial question addresses what lies beneath the appraisal of desirability. In other words, can we target specific factors which lead to appraising the conflict as "desirable"? Here we found that the constructs of FAM, ECR, and MOOD significantly impacted the appraised desirability of the event as well as the immediate experience of emotions.

The family functioning construct, operationalized with measures of social support (Curlette et al., 1990), parental attachment (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987), and family adaptability and cohesion (Olson et al., 1983), had a significant direct impact on four of the five other constructs used in this study. Authors such as Lapsley et al. (1990) have argued for the critical role of one's family history in one's psychological development, and the results of this support appear to support their contention with emotional functioning. FAM appeared to directly impact hypothesized mediating variables such as ECR, MOOD, and SIT, as well as the outcome variable of negative emotions. Therefore, the participants in this study with higher levels of family functioning had higher resources for handling emotions (ECR and MOOD); in addition, they evaluated the recent conflict with their parent in more positive ways and experienced lower levels of negative affect.

The second finding that ECR affected appraisals and emotions only indirectly through the construct of MOOD contradicts previous findings by McCarthy et al. (1997) that coping resources directly impact appraisals about the desirability of relationship breakups and subsequent emotions. These findings may be explained in at least two ways: first, in McCarthy et al.'s study, the construct of beliefs about mood was not included (as noted previously, the inclusion of MOOD in the this model was considered important given previous findings that coping resources have a strong relationship to MOOD variables) and so any variance associated with this construct might have been interpreted as error variance, and second, the type of event used in this study (parental

conflict) might have been different enough from relationship breakup to explain the difference in findings. Additional research is indicated to clarify this relationship and the extent to which it is applicable to different types of interpersonal difficulties.

One of the most surprising findings in this study was that while MOOD had a direct positive impact on positive emotions, it had a negative relationship to cognitive appraisals about the desirability of the event (see Figure 2). In other words, persons with greater confidence in their ability to identify and regulate negative feelings appraised the family as *less* desirable that those with lower scores on MOOD. This relationship is also supported by the Pearson correlations between the scales measuring this construct and the situational state appraisal items (see Tables 2 and 3). These results are particularly surprising given the fact that FAM had a positive impact on SIT and MOOD had a positive impact on positive emotions. In other words, higher levels of family functioning are related to higher levels of resources such as ECR and MOOD, and higher appraisals about the desirability of the parental conflict, but the relationship between FAM and SIT is also partially mediated by MOOD. This mediation operates in the operate direction of FAM - as FAM increases, SIT increases, yet as MOOD increases, SIT decreases. One explanation for this finding may be the specific way in which participants were asked to report their appraisals and emotions related to the conflict: using Roseman et al.'s (1990) methods, participants were asked to focus their responses on the appraisals they made at *the time the event happened*, and to report the emotions they experienced as a direct result of those appraisals. Those scoring high on MOOD might have been more aware of the immediate negative aspects of the situation related to their emotions and thus rated the event as more undesirable. Another clue to these findings is Mearns' description of negative mood regulation expectancies as similar to the situational appraisals suggested by Folkman and Lazarus (1998) as part of transactional models of stress in which the individual appraises both the positive and negative aspects of a potentially challenging event.

Due to restrictions in the measures, methods, and population used, many cautions should be observed in generalizing the results of this study. First, although we attempted to evaluate the possible influence of gender on our study, the sample was relatively homogenous with respect to ethnicity and educational background. In addition, the possible impact of different family constellations was not investigated - including, for example, whether respondents were describing interactions with step-parents, other family members acting as the parent, or other situations. Additionally, the fact that participants were recruited from undergraduate classes also might have influenced the study. A more diverse sample would be necessary to generalize the results of this study. In addition, only the event of parental conflict was investigated in this study, and other types of family events need to be researched to investigate the generalizability of the model developed in this study.

Although what we believe to be the most fundamental aspect of Roseman et al.'s (1990) model was tested (differentiation of positive and negative affect), other appraisal dimensions and some emotions were not included in the model. We would suggest that with regard to the fit of this model to the data, future research should focus on various parameters which could improve the overall fit. For example, future models might include evaluation of actual coping behaviors used to deal with the conflict. While it was inferred that the measurement of coping resources and beliefs about mood was highly correlated with the actual use of these resources, we did not measure this directly. It will be important for future researchers to also refine time intervals over which these resources are used. While we asked participants to reflect on their appraisals and emotions at the time the conflict occurred, McCarthy, Lambert, et al. (1997) have found a differential effect for the role of coping resources on emotions over time. Given the tentative findings in reported emotion for the males and females in our study, future research might focus on gender differences in the functional relationships between the variables investigated. It also should be noted that caution is warranted in the use of self-report methodology and in inferring causal relations from correlation-based studies. It will be important to test this model with experimental methods which allow for firmer conclusions about causality. Therefore, at the present time we believe that we may only suggest a tentative linkage between the construct investigated and cognition-emotion processes with family conflict.

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Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, Ranges, and Standardized Loadings of Variables in the Final Model

Observed Variable	M	SD	Loading for Maternal Conflict	Loading for Paternal Conflict
Family Functioning				
cohesion	56.91	12.27	.73	.69
adaptability	43.73	9.47	.70	.64
social support	74.99	22.60	.85	.92
attachment - mother	84.17	13.60	.68	
attachment - father	79.51	13.62		.72
Emotion Coping Resources (CRIS)				
self-disclosure	64.02	28.54	.66	.70
self-directedness	62.25	23.19	.42	.40
confidence	64.07	26.72	.70	.81
acceptance	48.18	22.34	.46	.59
tension control	53.99	23.37	.54	.63
stress monitoring	68.28	25.37	.70	.50
Mood				
NMRS - General	3.04	0.43	.72	.63
NMRS - Behavioral	3.08	0.53	.83	.63
NMRS - Cognitive	3.13	0.47	.71	.66
TMMS - Attention	2.93	0.60	.51	.43
TMMS - Repair	3.02	0.60	.83	.90
TMMS - Clarity	3.15	0.50	.42	.65
Appraisal				
situational state (maternal conflict)	3.38	1.01		
item #1			.49	
item #2			.59	
item #3			.73	
situational state (paternal conflict)	3.49	1.25		
item #1				.71
item #2				.77
item #3				.20

(table continues)

Table 1 (cont.)
Means, Standard Deviations, Ranges, and Standardized Loadings of Variables in the Final Model

Observed Variable	M	SD	Loading for Maternal Conflict	Loading for Paternal Conflict
Emotions for Maternal Conflict				
positive				
joy	1.20	0.66	.59	
relief	1.70	1.07	.62	
affection	1.82	1.15	.71	
hope	2.19	1.30	.47	
negative				
disgust	2.48	1.45	.59	
distress	3.17	1.37	.65	
sadness	2.79	1.43	.49	
unfriendliness	2.38	1.37	.64	
anger	3.24	1.47	.82	
frustration	4.21	1.11	.44	
contempt	2.05	2.02	.37	
Emotions for Paternal Conflict				
positive				
joy	1.28	0.81		.66
relief	1.59	1.07		.68
affection	1.66	1.08		.73
hope	2.08	1.32		.54
negative				
disgust	2.63	1.43		.71
distress	3.34	2.17		.35
sadness	2.88	1.45		.44
unfriendliness	2.56	1.44		.71
anger	3.39	1.48		.88
frustration	4.08	1.19		.58
contempt	2.04	1.31		.60

Note. N = 609; all standardized loadings are significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Table 2
Correlations Among all Variables in Final Model for Maternal Conflict

	SDC	SDI	CON	ACC	SSP	MON	TEN	COH	ADP	ATM	GEN	BEH	COG	ATT	REP	CLR	F17	F14	F19	JOY	REL	AFF	HOP	DSG	DST	SAD	UNF	ANG	FRS	CNT
SDC	---																													
SDI	.28	---																												
CON	.23	.48	---																											
ACC	.25	.33	.49	---																										
SSP	.51	.24	.36	.26	---																									
MON	.27	.31	.47	.25	.30	---																								
TEN	.25	.24	.51	.37	.30	.62	---																							
COH	.30	.09	.21	.16	.64	.16	.18	---																						
ADP	.32	.19	.20	.19	.59	.19	.23	.71	---																					
ATM	.31	.14	.20	.14	.56	.15	.17	.52	.52	---																				
GEN	.12	.12	.30	.13	.17	.18	.26	.14	.15	.35	---																			
BEH	.27	.07	.17	.12	.23	.18	.34	.23	.22	.39	.63	---																		
COG	.20	.12	.28	.18	.21	.17	.39	.20	.20	.29	.64	.60	---																	
ATT	.28	-.01	-.02	.00	.18	.13	.11	.16	.20	.40	.36	.46	.29	---																
REP	.32	.08	.37	.26	.29	.27	.42	.29	.30	.38	.58	.56	.59	.39	---															
CLR	.24	.25	.35	.18	.24	.26	.20	.22	.19	.30	.39	.30	.24	.28	.32	---														
M17	-.02	-.03	.00	.03	.02	-.03	.00	-.04	.01	-.01	-.07	-.11	-.01	-.21	-.04	-.10	---													
M14	.03	.04	.05	.11	.08	.00	.03	.03	.06	-.08	-.09	-.08	-.04	-.28	-.04	-.13	.50	---												
F19	.07	.00	.03	.09	.11	-.02	.03	.10	.13	.15	.08	.03	.11	-.01	.04	.00	.36	.25	---											
JOY	-.03	-.02	.02	.02	-.01	-.02	.05	.09	.12	.07	.05	.09	.05	-.02	.09	.02	.15	.19	.20	---										
REL	.02	-.01	.01	.04	.01	.00	.03	.05	.08	.08	.05	.09	.07	.01	.10	.00	.18	.20	.24	.49	---									
AFF	.06	.04	.10	.02	.12	.03	.09	.15	.18	.21	.07	.11	.09	.05	.14	.09	.11	.17	.22	.42	.43	---								
HOP	.03	.02	.03	.03	.10	.01	.03	.10	.17	.18	.08	.13	.10	.05	.14	.06	.15	.16	.14	.24	.30	.35	---							
DSG	-.04	.01	-.06	-.05	-.14	.01	.05	-.12	-.08	-.15	-.03	.03	.03	.03	-.01	-.03	.00	-.04	-.16	-.08	-.07	-.21	-.06	---						
DST	-.01	-.14	-.24	-.18	-.07	-.01	-.08	-.10	-.07	-.07	-.05	.02	-.02	.11	-.07	-.11	-.12	-.14	-.20	-.19	-.07	-.10	-.03	.38	---					
SAD	.02	-.14	-.22	-.11	-.08	-.04	-.03	-.05	-.07	.01	-.03	-.04	.02	.09	.02	-.15	-.07	-.12	-.07	-.13	-.08	.02	.00	.22	.51	---				
UNF	-.03	-.01	-.13	-.10	-.08	.00	.03	-.03	-.02	-.08	.01	.08	.04	.08	-.02	-.02	-.10	-.08	-.21	-.12	-.15	-.22	-.09	.45	.33	.26	---			
ANG	.01	-.06	-.14	-.07	-.11	-.02	-.03	-.07	-.08	-.16	.03	.00	-.03	.05	-.04	.00	-.12	-.11	-.23	-.23	-.21	-.29	-.09	.50	.35	.25	.56	---		
FRS	-.02	-.04	-.07	-.04	-.05	.03	.04	-.07	-.08	-.11	.02	.04	.03	.06	-.02	.05	-.10	-.07	-.12	-.31	-.18	-.17	.03	.26	.29	.11	.33	.47	---	
CNT	-.07	-.13	-.07	-.07	-.09	.03	.02	-.06	-.04	-.07	.03	.04	.01	.03	-.03	-.01	-.01	-.06	-.11	-.02	-.04	-.09	-.06	.22	.25	.17	.27	.29	.12	---

Note. SDC = self-disclosure; SDI = self-directedness; CON = confidence; ACC = acceptance; SSP = social support; TEN tension control; COH = cohesion; ADP = adaptation; ATM = maternal attachment; GEN = general NMRS; BEH = behavioral NMRS; COG = cognitive NMRS; ATT = attention TMMS; REP = repair TMMS; CLR = clarity TMMS; M17 = situational state item 17; M14 = situational state item 14; M19 = situational state item 19; JOY = joy; REL = relief; AFF = affection; HOP = hope; DSG = disgust; DST = distress; SAD = sadness; UNF = unfriendliness; ANG = anger; FRS = frustration; CNT = contempt (T1). Higher scores on coping resources indicate higher levels of that coping resource; higher scores on mood scales represent greater confidence in mood awareness and change; higher scores on situational state variables represent greater consistency with motives; higher scores on emotion scores represent greater reported intensities of that emotion.

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Table 3
Correlations Among all Variables in Final Model for Paternal Conflict

	SDC	SDI	CON	ACC	SSP	MON	TEN	COH	ADF	ATC	GEN	BEH	COG	ATT	REP	CLR	F17	F14	F19	JOY	REL	AFF	HOP	DSG	DST	SAD	UNF	ANG	FRS	CNT
SDC	---																													
SDI	28	---																												
CON	23	48	---																											
ACC	25	33	49	---																										
SSP	51	24	36	26	---																									
MON	27	31	47	25	30	---																								
TEN	25	24	51	37	30	62	---																							
COH	30	09	21	16	64	16	18	---																						
ADP	32	19	20	19	59	19	23	71	---																					
ATF	25	08	18	13	45	10	13	51	47	---																				
GEN	12	12	30	13	17	18	26	14	15	32	---																			
BEH	27	07	17	12	23	18	34	23	22	31	63	---																		
COG	20	12	28	18	21	17	39	20	20	23	64	60	---																	
ATT	28	-01	-02	00	18	13	11	16	20	30	36	46	29	---																
REP	32	08	37	26	29	27	42	29	30	36	58	56	59	39	---															
CLR	24	25	35	18	24	26	20	22	19	30	39	30	24	28	32	---														
F17	01	-03	-05	-03	04	-06	-05	03	00	02	-13	-09	-07	-16	-13	-10	---													
F14	00	01	05	01	05	-04	-01	04	02	-05	-19	-20	-09	-31	-15	-17	65	---												
F19	08	04	01	08	06	02	07	05	07	03	03	00	03	-02	07	05	16	14	---											
JOY	02	05	04	03	03	09	03	-01	06	12	10	11	13	03	07	05	16	16	12	---										
REL	01	-03	01	04	03	-09	03	-02	05	07	04	06	06	00	08	-02	20	21	12	63	---									
AFF	04	00	06	04	10	-07	03	12	13	24	09	09	10	-03	08	03	13	13	09	48	47	---								
HOP	06	-06	06	-01	08	-03	08	08	13	17	08	13	12	04	15	04	09	13	05	34	39	41	---							
DSG	-02	-05	-11	-18	-15	06	00	-17	-13	-21	-04	-01	03	04	-06	-03	-07	-07	-08	-18	-15	-26	-06	---						
DST	-03	-16	-16	-10	-04	-09	-01	-04	-06	-09	-08	06	-03	06	-02	-04	-07	-10	-07	-17	-12	-13	-06	29	---					
SAD	00	-16	-21	-11	-13	-01	04	-05	-12	-10	00	12	09	12	04	-11	-09	-06	-14	-20	-14	-06	01	34	28	---				
UNF	-05	-04	-16	-11	-18	03	-01	-14	-10	-21	-05	00	-01	07	-07	-06	-12	-12	-08	-18	-20	-25	-13	48	25	33	---			
ANG	00	-05	-14	-14	-17	03	03	-13	-12	-28	-06	00	00	06	-07	-05	-11	-12	-11	-27	-28	-34	-13	62	31	37	63	---		
FRS	02	-08	-15	-10	-15	-03	-03	-04	-09	-19	-08	02	-01	03	-06	-09	-11	-10	-11	-31	-20	-22	-01	41	27	26	40	57	---	
CNT	-03	-07	-09	-09	-10	08	05	-09	-07	-16	03	06	08	02	-03	-04	01	-02	-03	-04	-06	-14	-02	46	18	28	44	41	26	---

Note. SDC = self-disclosure; SDI = self-directedness; CON = confidence; ACC = acceptance; SSP = social support; TEN tension control; COH = cohesion; ADP = adaptation; ATF = paternal attachment; GEN = general NMRS; BEH = behavioral NMRS; COG = cognitive NMRS; ATT = attention TMMS; REP = repair TMMS; CLR = clarity TMMS; M17 = situational state item 17; M14 = situational state item 14; M19 = situational state item 19; JOY = joy; REL = relief; AFF = affection; HOP = hope; DSG = disgust; DST = distress; SAD = sadness; UNF = unfriendliness; ANG = anger; FRS = frustration; CNT = contempt. Higher scores on coping resources indicate higher levels of that coping resource; higher scor on mood scales represent greater confidence in mood awareness and change; higher scores on situational state variables represent greater consisten with motives; higher scores on emotion scores represent greater reported intensities of that emotion.

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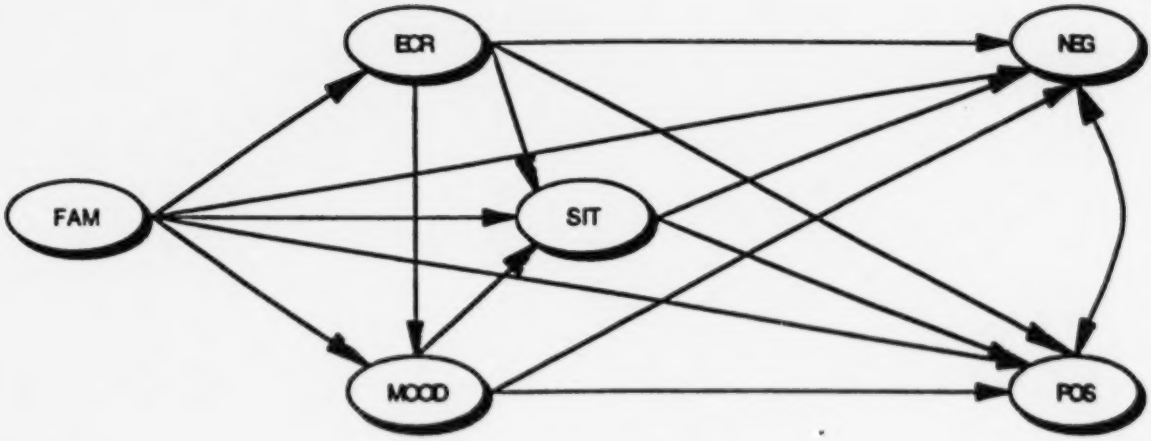
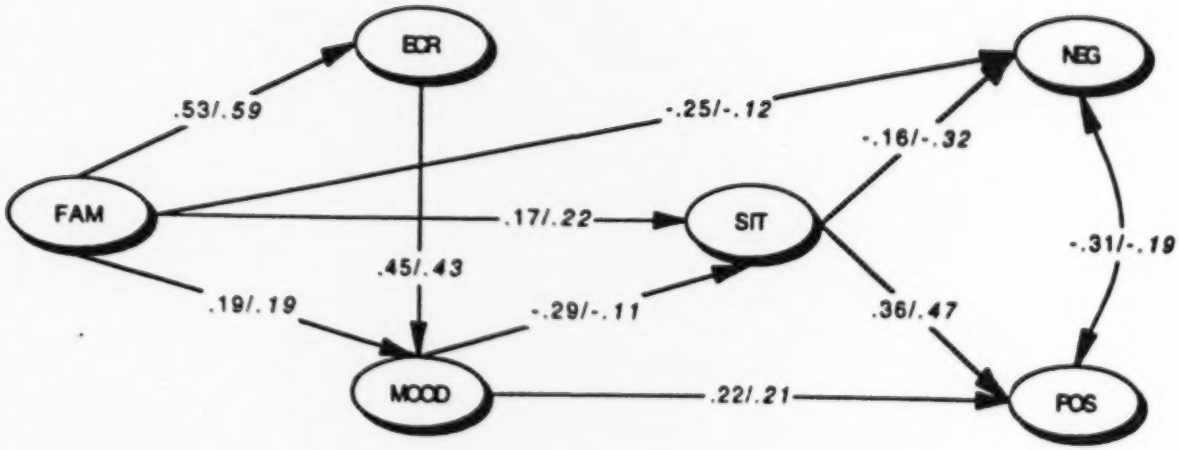
Figure 1. Full structural model of Coping, Attachment, and Emotions with Parental Conflict.



Note. FAM = family functioning; ECR = emotion coping resources; MOOD = beliefs about mood; SIT = situational state appraisal dimension; NEG = negative emotions; POS = positive emotions. Higher scores on coping resources indicate higher levels of that coping resource; higher scores on mood scales represent greater confidence in mood awareness and change; higher scores on situational state variables represent greater consistency with motives; higher scores on emotion scores represent greater reported intensities of that emotion.

Figure 2. Final structural model for parental conflict.



Note. All paths shown are significant at the $p < .05$ level; standardized estimates are indicated for the paternal conflict model and italicized numerals are for the maternal conflict model. FAM = family functioning; ECR = emotion coping resources; MOOD = beliefs about mood; SIT = situational state appraisal dimension; NEG = negative emotions; POS = positive emotions. Higher scores on coping resources indicate higher levels of that coping resource; higher scores on mood scales represent greater confidence in mood awareness and change; higher scores on situational state variables represent greater consistency with motives; higher scores on emotion scores represent greater reported intensities of that emotion.